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WITH regard to the usual classification of ocular colours, Dr. Broca remarks that the term "black," applied to the colour of the human eye, is entirely a misnomer, and that those which are commonly called black eyes are either very dark brown or occasionally very dark green. He observes of the eyes of negroes that, although they are universally called black, they are frequently scarcely darker than a chocolate colour. If to these pretended black eyes we add blue, grey, and green eyes, we shall have exhausted the list of ocular colours comprised in the previous classification. "But," says Dr. Broca, "anthropological description requires greater precision. It is not sufficient simply to point out the fundamental colour of the eye which is the subject of observation: this indication is rendered impossible in many cases by the mixture of colours. Besides, when it is proposed to discover whether any relation exists between the colouring of the eye and that of the skin or hair, it is more important to determine the greater or less depth of shade of the iris than the nature of the shade itself. When it is said that one individual has a blue, and another a brown eye, it is understood that the first has in the eye more colouring matter than the second. And yet there are blue, green, and even grey eyes, which are in reality much darker, that is, much nearer black, than any eye which can be called brown. For this reason, Dr. John Beddoe, of Clifton, in his important inquiries upon the eyes of the Scotch, the

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Irish, and the Jews, has avoided mentioning the fundamental colour of the iris; he has confined himself to a classification according to shades, without pointing out the fundamental colours, and has thus reduced the whole chromatic scale of the eyes to three types, which he calls dark, neutral, and light.

“But this classification is only available by those who have established it, or who have assisted *de visu* at the experiments. The application of shades is entirely personal, not in extreme cases, but in those which incline more or less to the intermediate. The object of the general instructions prepared by the Society is precisely to substitute for these personal appreciations uniform and methodical determinations, which shall not depend upon the degree of knowledge of the observers. It is thus necessary to place at their disposal a chromatic table, representing at once the principal *tints* and the principal *shades* of the colour of the iris.”

Dr. Broca then proceeds to describe the plan upon which he has formed his classification, as follows:—“I have adopted Dr. Beddoe’s principle in always arranging in sets of five the number of shades disposed in a scale from the lightest to the darkest. I have thus obtained five degrees expressing the *quantity* of colouring matter in the iris, and I have disposed them in five vertical columns, containing very dark, dark, medium, light and very light. I have then classed my sketches according to the fundamental colours, and it appears to me that these colours may be reduced to four principal types, viz., brown, green, blue, and grey. Yellow, which is frequently mixed with the preceding colours, is never sufficiently pure to constitute a distinct type. I may say the same of red, which always forms a certain part of the colouring matter of brown eyes. The reddish (*roux*), composed of red and yellow, does not seem to me either to deserve or to form a series by itself; this colour is observed in the eye of cats and lions, but I have not seen it in those of men. All the reddish eyes which I have seen approached the brown, and converged towards the intermediate degree of the series of browns. I have then commenced by disposing, in a graduated series, the eyes which belonged clearly to one of the four principal colours, brown, green, blue, or grey; and, placing the deepest of each series in the column of very dark eyes, and the lightest in the column of very light eyes, I have chosen among the other terms of the series the intermediate shades to fill up the intermediate columns. In this way, each vertical column shows types of colour different in kind, but nearly equivalent in shade, and each horizontal line includes types of colour similar in kind, but very different in shade.

“The twenty types being thus distributed and numbered, it is

easy to characterise by one or two numbers each eye of which the fundamental colour is decidedly brown, green, blue, or grey. When the shade corresponds exactly with one of the types represented, it will be marked with the number of that type. Thus, No. 2 refers to a dark brown eye; No. 8 to a medium green, &c. When the shade is included between two neighbouring types, it is represented by the two numbers separated by a hyphen. Thus, 3-4 would be a brown between the intermediate and light shades."

This valuable system of classification, on which M. Broca has expended so much time and care, is likely to prove of the utmost use to the cause of Anthropological science, and we understand will be employed at an early date by the Anthropological Society of London.

At the *séance* of December 3, an important paper by M. Boudin upon the subject of Consanguinity was read, in reply to that by M. Dally, which has already appeared in our columns; but as we may possibly soon publish this *in extenso*, we pass it over for the present.

At the same meeting Dr. Armand read a continuation of his paper, read in 1862, upon the varieties of races observed in the various campaigns of the French army from 1843 to 1862, treating in this portion of the Chinese and Indo-Chinese. We gather from this paper the following interesting particulars relative to the Chinese, which appear to have been collected in the year 1860. The Chinese are generally short; the form of the head holds a medium place between the Northern European and the negro, the forehead and the face retreating a little more than in the European, but less than in the negro. The head is conical, the face triangular, the colour yellowish, the upper lip overhangs the lower, the root of the nose is very wide, the nose is flat with wide nostrils, the eyes are oblique and far apart, the eyebrows black and elevated, they have but little beard, and the hair is black, smooth and shining. The lower classes in China, who are accustomed to much exercise, are the best made and the most vigorous. The increase of population in China is immense, the civil servants, military and sailors, being obliged to marry, and all classes marrying at an early age. The Chinese prefer their women of slight figure, but the contrary holds good of the men, it being considered the proper thing for the male sex to attain aldermanic proportions. The women are entirely dependent on their male relatives, the daughter being under the government of her father; the wife, of her husband; the widow, of her son. They are taught to paint and to embroider upon silk. A large number cultivate music and letters, and they are all generally instructed in

the duties of domestic life. Dr. Armand considers that the practice among the Chinese women of compressing the foot is rapidly decreasing. A man is not introduced to the woman whom he is about to marry, the negotiation being carried on by his friends. The woman brings no dowry. The law forbids marriage between relations, and sanctions divorce, for which it specifies seven reasons. The husband is allowed to have as many concubines as he can afford to keep: they are subject to the wife, and are in a somewhat similar condition to that of servants. Their children have the right of inheritance, but in a smaller proportion than the legitimate offspring. Infanticide and abortion are allowed by the law, but advantage is seldom taken of the permission, as the Chinese have a strong affection for their children. A rich man requiring an heir can always purchase the child of a poor one.

Of the population of Zche-fou, Dr. Armand says that it is at once maritime and agricultural. The sailors of the fishing boats and junks are strong and robust, and some of them very stout. Their longevity is great, it being by no means rare to find among them men of seventy and eighty years of age, and most of them looking at least ten years younger than they are in reality. Dr. Armand found that, in this country, which has had little or no intercourse with Europeans, syphilis was very prevalent, traces of secondary and tertiary symptoms being easily discernible.

The following description of a Chinese sketch, giving a verticollateral view of the interior of the human body, will show the condition of anatomical science in China. Dissection being forbidden, the Chinese doctors are obliged to have recourse to their imagination for their information upon this subject.

“The brain is represented by a simple lobe, elongated like that of a fish. The cerebellum is wanting; there is only a small swelling at the beginning of the spinal marrow. The superficial portions of the ear and eye are roughly marked: there are neither frontal sinuses, nor nostrils, nor palate; neither larynx nor pharynx. The trachea and the œsophagus are placed parallel to each other at a distance, like two necks of bottles. The trachea, of which six rings are marked, terminates in something like lungs, divided into ten apparent lobes. There is no heart. The diaphragm forms three reversed domes or three inferior convexities. The liver and the stomach seem like two bladders placed one on the other. The kidneys are represented, but do not communicate with the bladder, which is placed by itself in the pelvis, like an ace of hearts with the point upwards; perhaps the uterus was intended to be represented. The trunk-vertebræ are represented to the number of twelve in all,

followed by the sacrum. As to the abdominal walls, eight thick layers may be counted, placed one above the other."

This description is followed by some interesting particulars of the theatres and cemeteries of China.

The next people of whom M. Armand treats are the Annamites, or inhabitants of Cochin-China, who, he says, belong to the Indo-Chinese branch of the Mongolian race. Their ovoid head connects them with the Chinese types, and, like the Chinese, they have black hair and eyes, the latter somewhat oblique, the nose small rather than flattened, the cheek-bones less prominent, the lips somewhat thick; the dull white complexion of the children changes into an olive brown among the adults. There is a mixture of Malay blood in those populations which, in Lower Cochin-China, have often the lank thin bodies and long limbs of the negroes of the Equator. Both men and women wear their hair long, and moisten it with castor or cocoa-nut oil. The males are without beards until they grow old, when a few hairs make their appearance. Both sexes wear the same dress, which consists of a pair of wide trousers fastened at the waist, and over these a tunic or blouse hanging loose. They almost always go bare-footed, and sandals are considered a luxury. The women wear no stays, but they confine the breasts by a triangular bandage, pressed very tightly, and fastened round the neck and behind the back.

As in China, the parents have the right of selling their children like cattle. Polygamy is the rule, and a certificate of repudiation is all that is required to constitute a divorce. There are few cases of longevity: in Lower Cochin-China old men are rare. A man of fifty years of age is already emaciated, wrinkled, and broken down with age: the women rapidly become decrepid. The immoderate use of betel and opium has a large share in producing this result. Fevers and dysentery, and above all cholera, are endemic. Diseases of the skin are common, such as itch and many sorts of ulcers on the legs. Syphilis is widely spread and severe.

The next population which M. Armand notices is that of Aden, which he visited on his way from the Indian Ocean before passing through the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb to get into the Red Sea. He describes the population as very mixed, consisting of Persians and Arabian Asiatics, Africans, and, above all, black Abyssinians with straight hair, who are the boatmen of the place. These are excellent swimmers and divers, like the Malays of Singapore and the Maltese fishermen, and will bring up a piece of money thrown into the sea at great depths.

"Some of these negroes," says M. Armand, "attracted our

attention by their red and woolly hair. We asked ourselves, at first, whether the effect of crossing had not been to put English wigs upon these negro heads. But we soon discovered others wearing on their heads coverings of bitumen, as if for scurfs; they leave this coating on until it falls off spontaneously: it is their mode of colouring, or rather of discolouring, their hair, in order to imitate their masters."

A pamphlet by M. Brechon, entitled *Studies upon the Fractures of the Skull*, which was presented to the Society in December last, contains the following extraordinary fact relating to an aborigine of New Caledonia, who survived an immense fracture of the skull. The mark of the fracture extending right round the skull from the occipital bone to the lower part of the frontal, had entirely detached a fragment, which thus included almost the whole of the covering of the cranium. There was, besides, in the back part of the line of this fracture a considerable indentation, and it appears probable that the wound had been occasioned by a violent blow on the back of the head. In spite of the enormous extent of this wound, the man survived, and the consolidation of the fracture was completely effected.

The head of this savage was found in a sort of bone repository near Port Vincent by M. Chaleix, surgeon in the navy, and is at present in the Rochefort Museum.

We have already learnt from the narrations of travellers that the South Sea Islanders sometimes recover in a surprising manner from wounds in the head, which would be almost inevitably mortal among Europeans; but M. Brechon's fact is unique in its kind. All wounds of the same description, which have been observed up to the present time, among Europeans, have always been followed by death.

The following observations upon the best means of obtaining an exact representation of the colour of the eye, accompanied a case of twelve specimens of the most usual colours presented to the Paris Society by M. Boissonneau fils. As this paper forms an useful supplement to the able article by M. Broca, which we have mentioned above, we reproduce it:—

"The discussion which took place at the last meeting of your Society, perhaps permits me to inform you what are the means which I myself employ in reproducing, in enamel, eyes of which I have received a descriptive painting by letter.

"Physicians or private individuals who wish to send me the model of an eye, generally choose oil-colours; but, after many years experience, I have been induced, for the following reason, to request paintings in water-colours in preference.

"Oil-painting, it is true, imitates better the transparency of the cornea and the depth of the anterior chamber of the eye; but these results, very important from an artistic point of view, are only obtained by effects of light and shade which modify the real colours of the field of the iris.

"Thus, for example, when I had an oil-painting for a model, I was uncertain whether I ought to copy the darkest, the lightest, or that which appeared to be the intermediate shade.

"It happens, besides, very often that, to obtain these effects of transparency and of depth, the artist neglected the real colour of the iris, and almost always, after my first attempt, the physician who superintended the adaptation of the artificial eye, sent me directions which had the effect of rectifying the work of the painter.

"The dull shades of water-colours, on the contrary, produce less perfectly the effect of transparency, and the artist is naturally led to make a better study of the colour of the iris. Thus, when the greatest possible exactitude is required, water-colours are much preferable; the imitation is made with less hesitation and the results are more truthful."

At the same meeting, M. de Quatrefages read a passage from a letter of M. Garrigou, a member of the Society, describing the discovery of two human jaw-bones in the cave of Bruniquel (Tarn et Garonne). It appears that these bones were found at a depth of about 2 *mètres*, beneath a black clayey deposit of about 0.32 *mètres* in thickness. M. Garrigou has carefully examined the first, and believes that it belonged to a brachycephalic subject of small size, and about twenty-four years of age. It is very similar to the celebrated jaw-bone of Moulin-Quignon.

M. Broca presented to the Society a large number of human bones, among which were five lower jaw-bones and three broken skulls, together with several bones of animals and various implements belonging to the stone age, which have been extracted from a tumulus at Chamant, near Senlis, the property of M. le Comte de Lavaulx. The observations with which M. Broca accompanied this collection merely related to the place where they were found, and contained a list of the flint implements, etc. The description of the skulls will be found below.

On the 7th January, 1864, the Anthropological Society of Paris held its ninety-third meeting. M. Gratiolet, having been chosen President for the ensuing year, took the chair, and made the following address:—

"Gentlemen,—I ought, first of all, to thank my colleagues of the Société d'Anthropologie. In calling upon me to preside over them

to-day, they have condescended to give me a new proof of that kindness, to which they have so often accustomed me.

"I would wish, in order to prove to you all my gratitude, to imitate faithfully the zeal and accuracy of my illustrious predecessor. It is true, that man proposes and God disposes : but, whatever happens, you have put my mind perfectly at rest by nominating M. Pruner-Bey as your Vice-President. My duties will only last for a year, and when I give up the chair to my learned colleague, it will be really a joyful occasion. It may truly be said on that day that time has incontestably led to great progress in the Society.

"At present, I am delighted to be the bringer of good news. The actual position of the *Société d'Anthropologie* is the visible expression of incessant progress. In the beginning, certain necessities inherent in the installation of every new society obliged the founders to limit the number of members. But now, the times are changed : our Society is no longer a child in the cradle ; now it can walk alone, and I will add, that, thanks to your efforts, it walks gloriously.

* * * * *

"Besides its 154 members, the *Société d'Anthropologie* comprises six honorary members, thirty-six foreign associates, eighteen national correspondents, and eight foreign correspondents.

"This increasing prosperity is the glory of our Society ; but what it ought still more to congratulate itself upon is, that it has witnessed the birth, since the commencement of last year, of a society which is our sister not only in end but in name. The Anthropological Society of London has almost immediately displayed its activity, by the publication of a Journal rich in important labours, and of which two numbers have already appeared. Let us, then, applaud our younger sister with all our hearts. Let us wish her all the success which we desire for ourselves. We speak, it is true, different languages, but our object is the same, and our riches will be in common.

"I do not wish to enter here upon the question of our accounts. But I am happy to be able to state that our finances are in a most satisfactory state, and the Society has the more right to be gratified with this result because it has not shrunk from any expense that could render its publications worthy of the science which it cultivates. I may be allowed to remind you that the generosity of a colleague, whose loss is ever to be regretted, has placed you in such a position as to enable you to seek, in a direct manner, anthropological researches. The prize which will immortalise in the memory of the Society the name of Ernest Godard, will be awarded at the extraordinary meeting of 1865."

M. Broca gave, at this meeting, a description of the skulls which we mentioned above as having been discovered at Chamant. These skulls were too much broken to be studied at the last meeting; but, M. de Lavaulx having taken care to keep the fragments of the different skulls separate, M. Broca was able to reconstruct them so that, although far from complete, their principal characteristics could be considered. The following is a table of the transverse and antero-posterior diameters. :—

No.	1.	...	Antero-posterior Diameter.	...	Transverse Diameter.	...	Cephalic Index.	
	1.	...	178 mm.	...	140 mm.	...	78.65	0/0
	2.	...	189 "	...	135 "	...	71.42	"
	3.	...	184 "	...	144 "	...	78.26	"

The second skull is very dolichocephalic. The two others are mesaticephalic, but are much nearer the dolichocephalic than the brachycephalic form.

The next paper was by M. Defert, on the first two numbers of the *Anthropological Review, and Journal of the Anthropological Society of London*.

A committee, formed for the purpose of compiling instructions upon the Anthropology of Sicily, and composed of Dr. Pruner-Bey, Count Duhousset, and Dr. G. Lagneau, have produced a valuable and interesting paper upon that island. The attention of Anthropologists would naturally be drawn to a country possessing the peculiarities of position and language which Sicily does; and those who have made it their particular subject of study have been amply repaid. Previously to historic times, ample material may be found here for palæontological research. The island appears, at some distant time, to have been geologically connected on one side with Italy and on the other with the African continent. On this subject Dr. Lagneau says, "The remembrance of the cataclysm which caused the formation of the Straits of Messina is not yet completely lost in the night of time, for the writings of several authors of antiquity, among others Strabo, Pomponius Mela, and Silius Italicus, make mention, either of the continuity of Sicily with Brutium, or of its sudden separation. In support of this assertion, without calling to mind the authors cited by Cuvier, Fradin, and Boucquelot, it will be sufficient to quote the following passage of Pliny, who speaking of Sicily, says: 'Quondam Brutio agro cohærens, mox interfuso mari avulsi xv m in longitudinem freto.'"

This theory is further borne out by the fact that, in the cavern of San Teodoro, at the foot of Mount San Fratello, near the village of Acqua-Dolce, in the north of the island, M. F. Anca found fossil bones of the spotted hyæna, the hippopotamus, and the African ele-

phant, already observed in that of Olivella. But what is still more interesting to anthropologists is, that in certain fossil-bone caves objects worked by human hands have been found. In the cave of San Teodoro, M. Anca found implements or arms in phonolite and trachyte, whilst Dr. Falconer discovered flint knives, pieces of coal, etc., in the upper stratum of the cave of Maccagnone, near Carri, to the west of Palermo. Dr. Lagneau thinks that by continuing to make similar investigations, it might be possible to find some fossil bones of the first inhabitants, and thus to discover, by the aid of palæontological chronology, the epoch of man's first appearance in this portion of southern Europe. Besides these researches, there is abundant room for observation in the burying grounds of the ancient inhabitants of the island. Without doubt, the population at that distant period was of a much purer race than the mixed inhabitants of the present day, and their anthropological characteristics would be displayed with proportionate precision. M. Boucquelot points out for this purpose the sepulchral caves in the south of the island, near Girgenti, Caltanissetta, Castrogiovanni, the lake of Pergusa, Calatagirone, Vizzini, Modica, Orchora, Stafenda, Noto, Avola, etc. Some of these caverns are sarcophagi cut out of the rock; others are natural grottoes, some of which are inaccessible. These caves have also been sometimes thought to be the dwellings of the ancient inhabitants. Such were without doubt the innumerable caves disposed in stages on each side of the valley of Ipsica, between Modica and Spaccaforro, in which Balbi and de la Salle assert that gigantic bones have been found. Homer and Thucydides speak of those situated near Lentini as the dwellings of Lestrygons and Cyclops. Dr. Lagneau thinks that these Cyclops were the Pelasgi, and quotes M. Mimaut, who says that, by the remains of small conical towers which they constructed, these people may be traced to Italy, Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, the Balearic Isles, etc. About the origin of the Pelasgi themselves there is much difference of opinion. Pott, De Hahn, and others regard them as a branch of the Aryan family, and derive their name either from *πελ*, *παλ*, *παλαιοι*, ancients, *πελὸς ἄγρος*, a black field, or *πελαργος*, a swan, from their similarity to that bird in its migratory habits. On the other hand, Roeth and M. Pruner-Bey consider them as a nomadic portion of the Semitic race, basing their opinion, first, on the etymology of the word Pelasgi, which they derive from the Semitic root *pelash* or *palash*, signifying migratory; and secondly, on the historical documents and the names of the heroes and divinities of ancient Greece, testifying that at least a portion of the Pelasgic peoples quoted by the ancient authors belonged to the Semitic stock.

Whatever may be the ethnic origin of the ancient inhabitants of the caves of Sicily, although the narratives relating to the Cyclops and other giants, who are generally said to have been the first inhabitants of the earth, are more and more worthy of being regarded as fables now that the progress of human palæontology has demonstrated the small stature of the most ancient races of man, the researches made in these caves will not be the less interesting; for they might be able to furnish some information, either respecting pre-historic peoples, who were only gigantic or monstrous in the imagination of travellers, or upon other peoples whose existence history has revealed to us in this part of the island, as the Sicani, for example.

The Sicani are generally looked upon as the most ancient inhabitants of the island with three capes called Trinacria. From their name it took that of Sicania. Diodorus Siculus and Timeus consider them to be autochthonic, but a number of other authors regard them as of Iberian origin, and this theory derives no inconsiderable amount of confirmation from the Basque etymology of several names of places in Sicily. Another theory is, that the Sicani are Pelasgi, who preceded or accompanied the Siculi in the migration from Thrace and Illyria into Italy and Sicily. In support of this opinion, M. Miot, the translator of Diodorus, instances the Greek etymology of the names of the Sicanian chiefs who were vanquished by Hercules, but it is very possible that the author may have given these names their Greek form. But supposing that the Cyclops were Pelasgi, the idea of the Pelasgic origin of the Sicani would receive some support from the opinion of Demetrius of Calatia, who thinks that Sicanus, the chief of the Sicani, was the son of the Cyclop Briareus.

The origin of the Sicani not being precisely ascertained, it will be difficult to assign to them any positive anthropological characteristics, so as to allow us to distinguish their bones among those of the ancient places of burial, or to trace their descendants among the Sicilians of the present day. If, however, we look upon their Iberian origin as sufficiently established, we must suppose that they possess characteristics similar to those of the Basques, which, however, are not yet clearly defined. In this investigation it will be important to take notes of the names of mountains, valleys, water-courses, villages, and isolated dwellings, and those of persons, the phonology of which departs from the Greek or Latin. The manners of the ancient inhabitants of the island should also be studied. In Sicily and in Southern Italy, as well as in the Balearic Isles, the sling appears to have been in use. Do we still find in certain regions of Sicily the use of the iron or leaden shod stick, and of the Basque dress?

The next people referred to are the Siculi, about whose origin there is so much uncertainty, that it is impossible to determine their anthropological characteristics. To determine to what race they belonged, it will be necessary to search their ancient burying-places in order to make a careful examination of the bones, and also to study the existing Sicilians in those parts of the island where descendants of this people may still be likely to be found. After their immigration, which, according to Philistus, took place eighty years, and according to Hellanicus, three generations before the siege of Troy, which would bring it, according to Bellenger and Freret, to between 1264 and 1364 B.C., this people at first occupied the parts of the island abandoned by the Sicani; but after having beaten them, and advanced against them towards the southern part, they took possession of the richest territories, and fixed their abode in the northern, central, and even western portions; near Girgenti, Siculiana, at the present day in ruins, would seem to testify to their presence upon a point of the south-western coast.

Among the other peoples who have from time to time planted colonies in Sicily, concerning whom valuable and interesting details are given in this paper, are the Semites of Phœnicia and Carthage, the Creti and Elymi among the Greeks, the Romans in the third century B.C., the Normans in 1037, and after them the Germans, French, and Spaniards. Last of all, there was a large immigration of Albanians, commencing in 1448; these people founded several colonies, in which they preserved, to a great extent, their national customs.

From this sketch of the large number of varied nations which have contributed to the formation of the Sicilian population, it would be imagined that a great variety of anthropological types would exist in the island; but Dr. Pruner-Bey observes that, either from the predominance of some one of the constituent races, or from the fact of the ethnic mixture having taken place in a uniform proportion, the Sicilians of the present day present a certain similarity of physical and intellectual characteristics. According to him the stature of the Sicilian is generally below the medium; he is thin, his features are long and angular, his nose is not generally flattened, his hair is curly, and of a blackish brown, particularly in the country, in small places, and on the borders of Palermo. His eyes are handsome, and his glance piercing; he has rarely much beard. In character the Sicilians are passionate and vindictive, but also capable of great devotion; they are intelligent, imaginative, and enthusiastic, possessing much vivacity of speech and manner, but endowed with irresistible love of ease. They are generally good musicians. One of their greatest and most deeply-rooted

superstitions is their belief in the influence of the evil eye. The paper concludes with some interesting observations by M. Pruner-Bey on the dialect and peculiar idioms of the Sicilians.

M. Hazard, the proprietor of the cave of Mont Maigre, near Orrouy (Oise), sent the Society several pen and ink sketches, representing the configuration of Mont Maigre, the appearance of the sepulchral cave before the excavations, its appearance at the present time, and three cuttings of the soil showing the situation of the bone-stratum.

Mont Maigre is a steep and conical eminence, situated above the village of Orrouy, upon the north side of the valley of the Autone, a small stream which is a tributary of the Oise. Its summit rises to about eighty mètres above the valley. Upon its southern side, at an elevation of fifty mètres above the valley, was the opening of a small excavation, the roof of which was formed by the lower face of a split rock, and the sandy soil covered by several large stones, which appeared mostly to have been detached from the vault. The entrance, which was difficult of access and partly obstructed by these stones, was about four mètres wide. The depth was only three mètres and the height fifty centimètres from the level of the entrance, diminished towards the end, where the soil rejoined the rocky roof. Four years ago, M. Hazard had some workmen employed upon this spot; and, in moving a large stone, about one mètre and a half long, they found that it covered a human skeleton stretched at full length on a bed of perfectly dry yellow sand. The feet of this skeleton pointed east south-east; and all the bones, perfectly preserved, were in their places. M. Hazard assured himself of this, and had the bones carefully removed; but, unfortunately, they were afterwards mixed with those subsequently discovered, so that it became impossible to reconstruct the first skeleton. In continuing the work, they discovered, immediately below, a large quantity of human bones, disposed without any order, and forming a bed of about a mètre in thickness which extended the whole width of the cave. They were in a state of perfect preservation, of a slightly yellowish-white colour, and as clean as if they had just been prepared by an anatomist. A large number of bones of animals, much broken, were mixed with the human bones; the latter, however, formed at least nine-tenths of the total number. The animals' bones were those of small ruminants. Besides these bones there were found fragments of rough pottery, hatchets of polished flint, knives of cut flint, and a small bronze spoon marvellously preserved, the long thin handle of which was terminated by a little figure of remarkable workmanship. These objects have been carefully pre-

served by M. Hazard. A large number of the bones were lost, but two large boxes were filled, one with skulls and fragments of skulls, the other with large bones, and placed in a shed constructed on the summit of Mont Maigre. Here they remained untouched for four years, until Messrs. Broca, Bourgeois, and Lagneau went to the spot for the purpose of examining them. From the number of skulls and fragments of skulls preserved, it is certain that the cave contained the remains of at least fifty individuals. All these M. Hazard has generously presented to the Paris Society, with the exception of one skull which he has preserved for his own collection.

The existence of the entire skeleton which occupied the superficial bed proves that the cave of Orrouy was not only one of those bone-caves to which the exhumed bones of a cemetery were transferred, but that it was really a place of sepulture. This skeleton is that of the last individual buried in the cave. It is probable, that before that there was another placed in the same manner, and the bones of which were displaced and put among the rest to make room for the new-comer. It is probable, indeed, that that would have been, like the preceding, thrown in its turn into the general repository, if a new body had had to be introduced into the cave. If these suppositions are well founded, we may be allowed to believe that the cave of Orrouy was the burying-place of a very small tribe, or perhaps even of a single family; for, with such a mode of inhumation, so small a cave could not be intended frequently to receive bodies; and this, from the considerable number of bones found there, leads to the conclusion that this place of sepulture must have been used for a great number of generations.

During some further operations of the workmen, at about fifty mètres distance from the cavern described above, the sandy soil under a ledge of rock had to be removed. In immediate contact with the lower surface of this rock were found four fragments of a human skull, of remarkable thickness, of a brownish-grey colour, and entirely differing in its nature, its aspect, the rough state of its surface, and its position, from the skulls in the cave. These four fragments have been fastened together; they evidently belong to the same individual, and form together about half of the skull. No other bone, either of man or animal, nor any object of human workmanship has been found in the same place. The rock which covered it having long been fractured down to its base, and having in consequence taken a slightly oblique direction, it is supposed that this skull was at one time placed superficially in the soil of a small natural excavation, since effaced by the displacement of the rock.

M. de Roncey has written to M. Broca, begging him not to attach

too much importance to the presence of the bronze spoon among these remains, because this might possibly have been placed in the cave at a later period. To clear up this doubt we ought to be able exactly to know the level of the point where it was found; but, unfortunately, the discovery was made in the absence of M. Hazard, and the workmen can afford no information on the subject. It can only be said, therefore, that the remains found in this cave belong at least to the bronze age, as no trace of iron has been found among them. M. Broca has announced his intention of favouring the Society with the result of his observations upon these skulls and other bones.*

A long and interesting paper by M. Pruner-Bey, entitled "Questions relating to General Anthropology," is the next in order; but, as we intend to translate this in full for the benefit of our readers, we pass it by for the present.

At the meeting of the 4th February, it was announced that Dr. Hunt, President of the Anthropological Society of London, had transmitted, in the name of the Council, two propositions to the Society of Paris—1st to exchange duplicates from the museums of the two Societies; and, 2nd, to put the two Societies into direct communication, through the medium of delegated Commissioners, in order to prepare in common general instructions for Anthropological investigations. The principle of the first proposition was adopted by the Paris Society. The two museums would thus be able to assist in each other's completion; but it would be difficult to bring the principle into operation before the publication of the two catalogues. Dr. Hunt's second proposition met with an equally favourable reception. The Society regretted they were not able to give it a retrospective effect, as the *Instructions for Anatomical and Physiological Researches* were already in the press, and would appear with the second number of vol. ii of the *Memoirs*. The publication of these Instructions, which had been adopted on 17th July, 1862, and completed 6th November of the same year, had been retarded by material difficulties relative to the reproduction of the chromatic tables; but these difficulties were now overcome, and the publishing committee had already received the first proofs. But the instructions for anatomy and physiology only formed a portion of the general instructions. Ethnographical, Linguistic, and Archæological instructions, those which concerned the comparative pathology of the human race, statistics and medical geography, were still in preparation, and the Society of Paris would consider itself fortunate in being able to combine with that of London in the preparation of

* See Journal of Anthropological Society of London, vol. ii, p. cclxix.

these important instructions. It was also decided that the London Society should be allowed, if they desired to do so, to reproduce the chromatic table.

A letter was received from Professor Rudolph Wagner, stating that the meeting of the Anthropological Congress of Germany which was to have taken place at Göttingen, was postponed. One of the principal questions to have engaged the attention of the Congress was the craniology of the Laplanders and Esquimaux; but the principal assistance reckoned upon in the elucidation of this subject, was to have been derived from the skulls that the public and private museums of Stockholm and Copenhagen were to have sent to Göttingen for the occasion. The war between Denmark and Germany rendered this impossible, and it was too late to change the programme. The Congress was therefore adjourned.

M. Broca announced that, thanks to M. Simonot, the omissions which existed in the chromatic table of the skin, are now supplied. All the tints in this table have been copied either directly from nature or from busts coloured after nature.

In the corresponding table of the hair still greater facilities have been given, as the artist has been enabled to copy the colours from the specimens themselves. M. Broca had collected several hundred of specimens of all colours belonging to individuals of both sexes and of all ages and races. In this he had received the assistance of several members of the Society, particularly of M. Morpain, who had furnished him with hair of Albinos, and M. Pruner Bey, who had placed at his disposal his large and unique collection of hair. M. Broca had formed a graduated series of these according to their colours and shade. He exhibited to the Society a large card, upon which the various shades form a complete circle, passing from black to white by brown and grey, and returning from white to black by blond and red.

This collection is so perfect that it requires great care to distinguish two adjacent shades. The passage from bright to dull red and from blackish red to absolute black is particularly remarkable. This table, after the elimination of the duplicates, still contains more than sixty shades: but the numbered table only represents a certain number of types far enough apart to be easily distinguished at first sight. The lightest coloured specimens are those of Albinos. None of these, however, have been found to be absolutely white.

M. Broca proposed at first to dispose the colours of the hair in a scale as he had done those of the eyes, and to do the same with the colours of the skin. But this would have given use to three different scales, which could not have been included in a single plate. There

are a great many colours which are common to the skin and to the hair,—thus it is possible to avoid a number of repetitions by placing in a single table all the colours of the skin and hair. As the determination of these colours does not offer any difficulty, they have not been arranged in regular series. The shades of the same colour have been brought together to avoid errors of contrast, but it has been thought unnecessary to establish parallel groups as in the scale of colours of the eye.

M. Broca presented to the society a drawing of the eye of an Albino woman of thirty-seven years of age, of which he gave the following account. The ball of the eye, seen through the pupil, is of a blood-red colour. The iris, seen from a distance of about a yard, is of a uniform red, duller than that of the ball of the eye, but, when looked at closely, we immediately see that this shade of the iris is the result of the mixture of two different colours, red and white. The red parts consist of long thin spots, of very varied forms and dimensions. Some are linear, others have the form of small much elongated lozenges, or of small nearly isosceles triangles, the largest size of which is not more than a millimètre. All these red spots, separated from each other by white fibres, have a radiated disposition, that is, their large axes would meet, if prolonged, in the very centre of the pupil. None of them extend to the small circle of the iris; but some of them are prolonged as far as the large circle. When we examine the entire iris, we find that the small circle is whiter than the rest of the membrane; the large circle is much less white; the red manifestly predominates in the intermediate zone between the two circles. The red spots do not present exactly the same shade. Those which are very narrow are only of a rose colour; the widest are almost as bright a red as that of the pupil. Similarly, the white fibres are whiter in proportion as they are thicker. Those that are very thin have a rose-coloured tint.

When the eye is examined attentively, it can be seen that the red colour of the spots is only the colour of the ball of the eye seen by transparency, and that the white parts are those where the fibres of the iris form bundles sufficiently thick to arrest the light. The radiated disposition of the fibres of the iris, well-known to anatomists, is evident in the eye of the Albino. There is, on the level of the pupillary border, a small ring of circular fibres; from this ring, which is also called the sphincter iridis, the bundles of fibres separate, diverging obliquely, forming anastomosis in such a manner as to intercept the web or elongated areola, and reaching to the exterior border of the iris. These circular or divergent fibres are colourless. They are opaque, or rather they are not very

transparent. Where they are thickly clustered, they hide the colour of the deeper portions; where they are thinner and further apart, they allow that colour to be seen, more or less modified by the effects of transparency. In the normal state, the posterior face of the iris is covered by a layer of pigment entirely opaque and quite black: there is, besides, in eyes more or less brown, a certain amount of pigment contained in the thickness of the iris itself. The special colour of the iris depends, on the one hand, on the thickness or thinness, the opacity or transparency, the density or laxity of the fibres of the iris; on the other hand, on the quantity and distribution of the pigment deposited in the thickness of that membrane itself. As to the posterior pigmentary layer, it is always uniformly black, in the lightest as well as in the darkest eyes. In the Albino the pigment is entirely wanting: the pigmentary cells exist, but are perfectly transparent. The red colour of the innumerable vessels of the deep membranes of the eye, not being overpowered by the black of the pigment of the choroid is shown in all its purity, and the base of the eye, seen through the pupil, appears of a blood red. The absence of the pigment of the iris has another consequence. This membrane, deprived of the opaque coating which is destined to arrest the luminous rays, only opposes an insufficient obstacle to the passage of the light, and allows, by its transparency, the red colour of the base of the eye to be seen. But this transparency is not uniform: it is especially manifested at the level of the spaces intercepted by the fibrous clusters, which, being more opaque, show themselves in their natural colours under the form of white lines or stripes.

M. Broca infers from this that there would exist great differences in the eyes of Albinos. He refers to some cases of partial Albinism which have been mentioned, and in which there was evidently a small quantity of pigment existing in the iris; and concludes that, from the natural variation of the thickness and density of the fibres, there would be some cases where the entire iris was almost as deep a red as the pupil itself, whereas in others it would not be deeper than rose colour. The red or transparent spaces are so many small pupils, through which the luminous rays penetrate into the eye: these rays form upon the retina so many abnormal images which destroy the plainness of the principal image formed by the pupillary rays, which would render the vision very defective. There are, in this respect, great differences between Albinos: the sight of some is almost normal; others can scarcely see at all in day light, whilst they see very well in a half light. When the transparent or red spots are very narrow, these small supplementary pupils scarcely

allow any luminous rays to pass which do not sensibly disturb the vision. When, on the contrary, they are wider, they produce a confusion of images. It is clear that, in the last case the confusion is proportionate to the width and also to the number of the supplementary pupils. If the transparent spaces were closed up or effaced, the vision would cease to be disturbed. This is what happens when the exterior light is not very intense. Then the normal pupil becomes enlarged, that is, the size of the iris is diminished. The clusters of opaque fibres which, when distributed through a space of, for example, four millimètres, left room for transparent spaces between them, will be drawn into contact with each other when that space is narrowed to two or three millimètres; there will only remain a single pupil, the normal one, and the luminous rays will reach it in their regular manner. It was decided that this representation of the eye of an Albino should be added to the plate of the colours of the eye prepared by the Society.

At the same meeting, M. Broca communicated to the Society the result of his investigations on the height of conscripts in the three departments of Finistère, Côtes-du-Nord, and Morbihan; and exhibited a map showing by different shades the proportion of exemptions on ground of size in the hundred and twenty-six cantons of these three departments, during the ten years from 1850 to 1859 inclusive. The thirty-one cantons which have furnished the greatest number of exemptions on account of insufficient height, form a large uninterrupted black patch, which corresponds almost exactly with the limits of the ancient country of Cornouaille, and is entirely situated in Lower Brittany; that is, to the east of the line of demarcation established by M. de Courson between the localities where French and Breton are spoken. The influence of race upon height becomes manifest from the examination of this map. The shortest stature is observed in the cantons where the population of the ancient Armorica has remained pure; the tallest exists, on the contrary, in those countries where the Kymro-Bretons, who arrived in the sixth century from the southern part of Great Britain, established themselves. More extended details have been collected in a memoir, which will be published with the map.

A committee, consisting of Messrs. Pruner-Bey, Andrieu, and Perier, was formed, for the purpose of compiling instructions for M. Léon Vaillant, who was about to set out for Egypt and to undertake a journey of exploration upon the shores of the Red Sea. M. Perier, who communicates the results of this interesting labour to the society, has compiled a paper full of extremely valuable information upon the manners of the different races living in this

part of the world, as well upon the African as the Asiatic shores of the Red Sea, and containing many suggestions as to those points upon which it is most desirable to obtain information.

At the meeting of 18 February, M. Dally made some observations upon two papers upon the Andaman Islanders contained in the *Bulletins* of the Society, one by M. Pihan-Dufeillay, the other by M. Broca. On M. Pihan-Dufeillay's remark, that these people display "an absence of all, even rudimentary civilisation," he observes that they possess habitations, arms, tools, and even canoes, and they appear to have a knowledge of fire, although that fact is not distinctly stated: they tattoo by the aid of a cutting instrument, which is a certain indication of search after ornamentation: they have a certain amount of care for the dead, and an institution somewhat resembling polygamy. M. Dally inquires, with respect to these facts, what may be considered the most elementary degree of human civilisation? Are these men, who have never had any idea of constructing habitations, of obtaining fire, or of making tools, who leave their dead without burial, and shew no trace of restraint upon sexual relations? Are there marked differences between the most rudimentary form of human civilisation and the most elevated form of the social instincts of animals? Further, he comments upon an observation of M. Broca, who concludes, from Professor Owen's geological and anatomical researches, that the Mincopies were "one of the most ancient races, if not one of the primitive races of man. M. Dally asks what meaning is to be assigned to the expressions *most ancient races* and *primitive races*. In reply, M. Broca observed that he used the terms as putting aside the question of monogenism or polygenism. Those who admit the existence of several primitively distinct races, would conclude from Professor Owen's opinion that the Mincopies, separated since the end of the tertiary period from all mixture of race, are the representatives of one of the primitive races. On the other hand, the monogenists, viewing the Mincopies as having remained for a very long period under the influence of the same media, and separated from those causes which have led to the modification of most other peoples, would consider them as one of the most ancient races of man.

At the meeting of March 3, Professor Ange Duval communicated his observations upon two cases of traumatic aphonia produced by injury of the third left frontal convolution. The first case was that of a man thirty-four years of age, and caused by a fall upon the right side of the back of the head. The loss of speech was immediate and complete, but consciousness remained, and the patient preserved his expression of face, and was able to make himself under-

stood by signs. He died on the twelfth day after the injury, without recovering the power of speech. A fracture of the right portion of the occipital bone and a transverse fracture of the petrosal bone on the same side. There was a small contusion in the anterior extremity of the right frontal lobe. Above all, there existed, in the *left* frontal lobe, a deep and very extended contusion, which entirely disorganised the posterior half of the third frontal convolution. Within, the wound extends to the second frontal convolution, which is only partially divided; without, it is somewhat prolonged upon one of the radiated convolutions of the island of Reil.

The second case was also that of a fall upon the head. The patient was a child five years of age. The loss of speech was complete and immediate. A cure was effected, and the child lived for twelve months after, when he was accidentally drowned. His reason was preserved, but he never recovered the faculty of speech. A post-mortem examination discovered, on the external portion of the left frontal lobe of the brain, a spherical cyst, thirty-three millimètres in diameter, situated under the pia mater a little behind the fracture, and placed in a deep excavation of the cerebral substance.

This cyst succeeded a deep contusion of the corresponding part of the brain. The observation was made at Toulon in 1849, and it would be impossible to say now what particular convolutions were injured; but the situation of the cyst has been determined with so much certainty as to leave no doubt that there was an injury of the third frontal convolution. M. Broca, in commenting upon these observations, declared his own experience, in more than twenty cases, to have been precisely similar, whilst he has remarked in several instances that injuries to the third frontal convolution of the *right* hemisphere have not affected the faculty of speech.

At the meeting of the 4th February, M. d'Omalus d'Halloz invited discussion upon the three following questions:—

1st. What are the proofs of the Asiatic origin of Europeans?

2nd. Have not the flexion languages, instead of passing from Asia into Europe, spread from Europe into Asia?

3rd. Are not the people who speak Celtic dialects (Irish, Gauls, Bas-Bretons, and Scotch Highlanders), and who are from this fact believed to have come from Asia, rather descendants of autochthonic peoples of Western Europe?

We reserve the long and interesting discussions upon these questions for our next abstract.
